



Fumonisin and beauvericin induce apoptosis in turkey peripheral blood lymphocytes

Mary Ann Dombrink-Kurtzman

Mycotoxin Research Unit, National Center for Agricultural Utilization Research, USDA, Agricultural Research Service, Peoria, Illinois

Received 6 February 2002; accepted 26 March 2003

Abstract

Fumonisin, a family of mycotoxins produced by *Fusarium verticillioides* (synonym *Fusarium moniliforme* Sheldon) and *F. proliferatum*, have been associated with various deleterious effects in different animal species. Serological, hematological and pathological effects and mortality have previously been observed in broiler chicks fed *F. proliferatum* culture material containing known concentrations of fumonisin, moniliformin and beauvericin. Turkey peripheral blood lymphocytes were exposed *in vitro* for 72 hours to fumonisin B₁ (FB₁), fumonisin B₂ (FB₂), hydrolyzed fumonisin B₁ (HFB₁), moniliformin and tricarballic acid (TCA) (0.01–25 µg/ml). A decrease in cell proliferation, as determined by the MTT [3-(4,5-dimethylthiazol-2-yl)-2,5-diphenyl tetrazolium bromide] bioassay, occurred in the order: FB₂ > FB₁ > HFB₁, with IC₅₀ = 0.6 µM, 1 µM and 10 µM, respectively. Internucleosomal DNA fragmentation and morphological features characteristic of apoptosis were observed following exposure to fumonisin B₁ and beauvericin; cytoplasmic condensation and membrane blebbing were seen by light microscopy. Tricarballic acid and moniliformin did not interfere with cell proliferation. Results suggested that fumonisin B₁ and beauvericin may affect immune functions by suppressing proliferation and inducing apoptosis of lymphocytes.

Key words: apoptosis, beauvericin, fumonisin, *Fusarium proliferatum*, inhibition of proliferation, moniliformin

Introduction

Fusarium verticillioides (synonym *F. moniliforme* Sheldon) and a related species, *F. proliferatum*, frequently found as contaminants in feed containing corn or corn screenings, are capable of producing high levels of the fumonisin mycotoxins. Fumonisin have been associated with diseases in animals: equine leukoencephalomalacia (ELEM), porcine pulmonary edema and liver cancer in rats [1, 2]. Reports of the association of ELEM with mold-damaged corn have existed for 100 years, although the structural elucidation of fumonisins was only described in 1988 [3]. Fumonisin B₁ (FB₁) can cause inhibition of sphingomyelin biosynthesis in rat hepatocyte culture by inhibiting sphinganine *N*-acyltransferase (ceramide synthase) in the *de novo* sphingolipid pathway, resulting in an accumulation of free sphinganine [4]. In animals, exposure to fumonisin causes an increase in free sphinganine, an

increase in the ratio of free sphinganine:sphingosine and a decrease in complex sphingolipids [5]. Both purified toxins and *F. verticillioides* or *F. proliferatum* culture material can produce this effect.

Four fumonisin B analogs (FB_{1–4}) have been identified [6]; FB₁ is the major form occurring both in nature and in culture. Although studies have utilized *F. proliferatum* culture material to test the effects of fumonisins, it is difficult to ascribe effects solely to fumonisin(s) because other mycotoxins (moniliformin and beauvericin) are frequently produced [7, 8]. Another fumonisin compound of interest is hydrolyzed fumonisin B₁ (HFB₁), which is formed during the production of masa and tortillas when the tricarballic sidechains of FB₁ are cleaved by alkaline hydrolysis (nixtamalization) [9].

Recent research in several laboratories has demonstrated fumonisin-induced apoptosis in different systems. In CV-1 (monkey kidney) cells, FB₁ induced

the stereotypical hallmarks of apoptosis, including the formation of DNA ladders, compaction of nuclear DNA and the subsequent appearance of apoptotic bodies [10]. Neonatal human keratinocytes and human esophageal epithelial cells have developed morphological features consistent with apoptosis when treated with FB₁ [11]. In a porcine kidney epithelial cell line, FB₁ produced morphological changes of cell shrinking and membrane blebbing, indicating that the mycotoxin induced apoptosis [12].

In prior research, the cytotoxic effects of FB₁ and FB₂ in turkey lymphocytes were examined [13]. In the present study, turkey peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC) were exposed to FB₁, FB₂, HFB₁, tricarballic acid (TCA), moniliformin or beauvericin to determine if a dose-dependent inhibition of proliferation occurred and if apoptotic cell death was induced. PBMC were used in this study because they represent native cells rather than an established cell line. The cells were primarily a mixture of lymphocytes, with some monocytes that had not been completely removed by adherence. Morphological changes indicative of apoptosis were noted by microscopic examination of cells. The most striking observation was the projection of knobby protuberances at the lymphocyte cell surface, giving the impression that the cells were boiling. The term zeosis, rapid blebbing, is characteristic of the type of bubbling in which relatively rapid projection and retraction of the cytoplasm occurs [14]. The apoptosis induced in lymphocytes following *in vitro* exposure may indicate that similar effects can occur in animals following exposure to fumonisin and beauvericin.

Materials and methods

Mycotoxins and related microbial products

Fumonisin B₁, FB₂, moniliformin, beauvericin and TCA were purchased from Sigma Chemical Company (St. Louis, MO). The fumonisins and beauvericin were also produced by *F. proliferatum* M-5991 and isolated [8]. Hydrolyzed fumonisin B₁ was prepared by base hydrolysis of FB₁ and was a gift from G. A. Bennett (NCAUR).

For production of HFB₁, fumonisins were extracted from culture material (*F. proliferatum* grown on rice) (50 g) with acetonitrile-water (50:50) (250 ml) and filtered. The filtrate (100 ml) was subjected to alkaline hydrolysis (50 ml 2N NaOH) at 60–65 °C for 1

hr. After neutralization with 2N HCl, the extract was added to an Amberlite XAD-2 column (Sigma). HFB₁ was eluted from the column with acetonitrile-water (60:40) and relative purity was determined by TLC. The aminopentol product was further purified using a C₁₈ SPE column (Mega Bond Elut, Varian Sample Preparation Products, Harbor City, CA). Purity of HFB₁ (>98%) was determined, following derivatization, by HPLC (fluorescence detection) relative to a known standard [8].

Cell culture and cytotoxicity test

Turkey peripheral blood lymphocytes were obtained from heparinized whole blood collected from the wing vein of 12 and 14 weeks old Nicholas (broad-breasted white) turkeys. Blood was diluted with an equal volume of Hank's balanced salt solution (HBSS). Four ml of diluted blood were layered onto a Percoll gradient (2 ml 45% plus 2 ml 54% Percoll) and centrifuged at 500 g for 20 min. The band of lymphocytes was removed and cells were washed 2X with HBSS. Following the last centrifugation, cells were resuspended in RPMI 1640 (25 mM HEPES, 2 mM glutamine, 1 mM sodium pyruvate, 0.1 mM MEM nonessential amino acids, 100 units penicillin/ml, 0.1 mg streptomycin/ml, 0.25 µg amphotericin B/ml) containing 5% heat-inactivated turkey serum (TS). Cells were diluted using a NOVA Celltrack 6 diluter, counted with a NOVA Celltrack2 analyzer (Nova Biomedical Corp., Waltham, MA) and adjusted to a concentration of 2×10^6 lymphocytes/ml. Lymphocytes were exposed to FB₁, FB₂, HFB₁, moniliformin, or tricarballic acid (1,2,3-Propanetricarboxylic acid) (0.01–25 µg/ml) for 72 hr at 39 °C, 5% CO₂, in 96-well microtiter plates for the MTT bioassay [13, 15].

Two-fold dilutions of FB₁, FB₂, HFB₁, moniliformin and TCA (0.01–25 µg/ml) were made in RPMI-TS in 96-well, flat bottom microtiter plates. To 100 µl diluted toxin was added 100 µl cell suspension. Controls without toxin and MTT were included. After incubation for 72 hr, twenty µl MTT (5 mg/ml) were added and plates were incubated for four additional hours. Plates were centrifuged at 1600 g for 20 min and supernatant was removed. One hundred µl dimethylsulfoxide (DMSO) were added to the pelleted cells. The plates were shaken for ten minutes and absorbance at 540 nm measured on a microplate reader (Dynatech MR700, Dynatech Laboratories, Inc., Chantilly, VA). Mean values of quadrupli-

cates at each toxin concentration were compared with corresponding controls.

Cells were also incubated in the presence of FB₁, FB₂, HFB₁, moniliformin or beauvericin (8 μ M and 50 μ M) for 72 hr in 25 cm² vented culture flasks and photographed either unstained or following staining with Diff-Quick (Wright's Giemsa) stain set (Baxter Healthcare Corp., McGaw Park, IL).

DNA fragmentation

Cells were incubated in the presence of FB₁, FB₂, HFB₁, moniliformin or beauvericin (8 μ M and 50 μ M) for 72 hr in 25 cm² vented culture flasks for DNA isolation. A ten ml volume of mycotoxin-exposed lymphocytes was centrifuged at 400 g for 10 min. The supernatant was discarded and the cells were lyophilized. Components of the Magic DNA Purification Systems (Promega, Madison, WI) were used for DNA isolation. The lyophilized cells (approx. 10⁴) were resuspended in 200 μ l Cell Resuspension Solution (50 mM Tris, pH 7.5, 10 mM EDTA, 100 μ g/ml RNase A) and lysed by adding 200 μ l 1% SDS; 200 μ l Neutralization Solution (2.55 M potassium acetate) (pH 4.8) were added and the tubes were centrifuged at 10,000 g for 10 min. The supernatants were transferred to microfuge tubes and Gene Clean II (Bio 101, Inc., La Jolla, CA) was used for DNA purification. DNA fragments were separated by agarose gel electrophoresis using 2% Nusieve (FMC)/1% Ultra Pure Agarose (BRL) in 1X TPE (90 mM Tris-phosphate, 2 mM EDTA). One hundred base pair DNA molecular weight markers (Cat. No. 156628-019, GIBCO BRL, Grand Island, NY) were used for determining the size of the fragmented chromosomal DNA. The gels (75 \times 50 mm) were run for 45 min at 90 V, stained for 30 min at room temperature using ethidium bromide, and photographed under ultraviolet illumination.

Results

Turkey peripheral blood lymphocytes which had been exposed *in vitro* to FB₁, FB₂ or HFB₁ (0.01–25 μ g/ml) for 72 hr exhibited a dose-dependent decrease in ability to proliferate. FB₁ (IC₅₀ = 1 μ M) and HFB₁ (IC₅₀ = 10 μ M) (Figure 1) and FB₂ (IC₅₀ = 0.6 μ M) [13] caused inhibition of proliferation. The IC₅₀ value represents 50% inhibition. This did not represent only increased cell death with toxin-exposed cells because control cells have been shown to have a linear increase

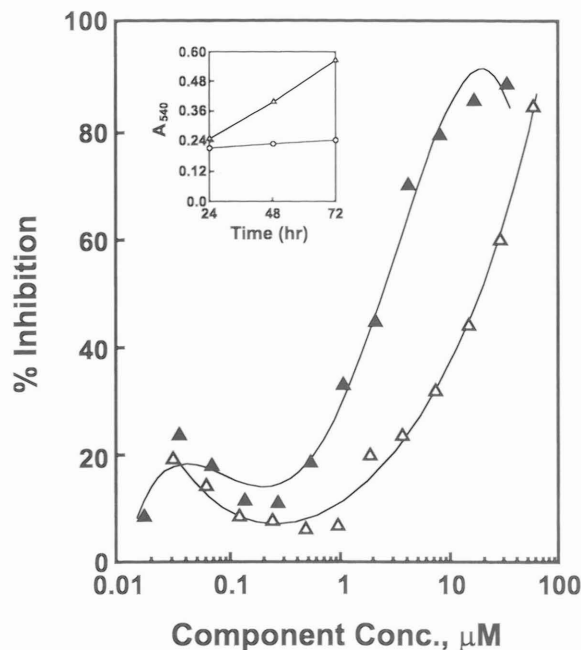


Figure 1. Effect of FB₁ and HFB₁ on proliferation of turkey peripheral blood lymphocytes, as determined by the MTT bioassay. Cells were incubated with FB₁ (\blacktriangle) or HFB₁ (\triangle) (0.01–25 μ g/ml) for 72 hr at 39 °C. Each point is the mean of 4 replicates. Percent inhibition was calculated relative to control cells [12]. Shown in the insert is the difference in proliferation observed between control cells (Δ) and cells exposed to FB₂ (\circ), monitored as absorbance at 540 nm at 24, 48 and 72 hr.

in absorbance over 24–72 h [13]. A comparison of control cells and cells exposed to FB₂ is shown as an insert in Figure 1. A similar level of inhibition of proliferation of turkey lymphocytes had been observed when cells were exposed to FB₁, stimulated with 5 μ g concanavalin A/ml and uptake of ³H-thymidine was measured (unpublished data). Cells exposed to moniliformin or TCA resembled control cells and did not show inhibition of proliferation.

The present evidence indicated that turkey peripheral mononuclear cells underwent apoptosis when treated *in vitro* with FB₁, HFB₁, FB₂ and beauvericin. Evidence of apoptosis was observed in several different manners, including characteristic DNA fragmentation (cleavage of DNA between histone octamers to generate a ladder of fragments) and light microscopy. Nuclear DNA fragmentation was assessed qualitatively by agarose gel electrophoresis. DNA fragmentation (multiples of approx. 180 base pairs) was observed in cells exposed to 8 μ M FB₁ (Figure 2A and 2B), 50 μ M and 8 μ M beauvericin (Figure 2A and 2B), and 8 μ M FB₁ plus 8 μ M beauvericin

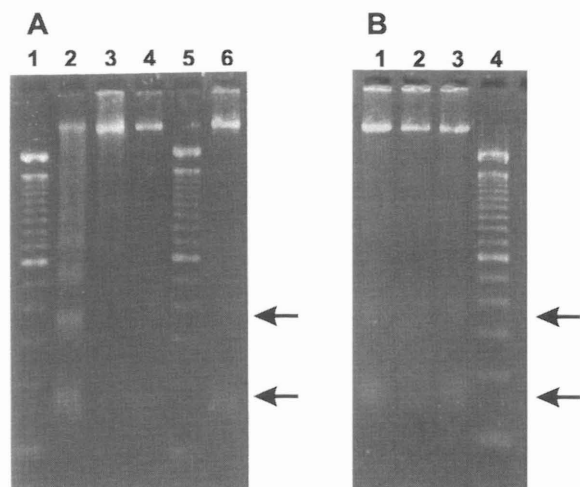


Figure 2. Electrophoretic gel laddering of cellular DNA isolated from turkey peripheral blood lymphocytes cultured for 72 hr with FB₁, beauvericin or FB₁ and beauvericin combined. DNA was isolated, loaded onto the agarose gel and analyzed. **A:** Represented in lanes 1 through 6 are the following: 1 and 5, molecular weight markers (100-base pair ladder of DNA); 2, cells treated with beauvericin (50 μ M); 3, untreated cells (control); 4 and 6, cells treated with FB₁ (8 μ M). **B:** Cells represented in lanes 1 through 3 were treated as follows: 1, FB₁ (8 μ M); 2, beauvericin (8 μ M); 3, FB₁ (8 μ M) and beauvericin (8 μ M). Molecular weight markers are in lane 4.

(Figure 2B), as well as with FB₂ or HFB₁ (data not shown) at 8 μ M and 50 μ M. No DNA fragmentation occurred with exposure to moniliformin. The effect of exposure to FB₁ and beauvericin (Figure 2B) together was slightly additive. Exposure to FB₁ (Figure 2B) showed more DNA fragmentation occurred than with beauvericin (Figure 2B). Indications of apoptosis were visible in unstained cells that had been exposed to FB₁, FB₂, HFB₁ and beauvericin (Figures 3 and 4) at 8 μ M and 50 μ M for 72 hr. Morphological changes characteristic of apoptosis seen by light microscopy included condensation of chromatin, with highly condensed chromatin forming crescents around the periphery of the cells and displaced nuclei and blebs (high levels of cytoplasmic vacuolization). The number of cells remaining after exposure to 50 μ M of FB₁, FB₂, HFB₁ or beauvericin was reduced, compared to those exposed to 8 μ M of these toxins (Figures 3 and 4). There were fewer cells in FB₂-exposed cultures (Figure 3B) than in FB₁- and HFB₁-exposed cultures (Figure 3A and C, respectively) at 50 μ M levels. There were more cells present following exposure to beauvericin (50 μ M) (Figure 4D), than with FB₁, FB₂ or HFB₁ (50 μ M) (Figure 3A, B and C).

Vacuoles and condensation of nuclear and cytoplasmic components of cells exposed to 8 μ M of FB₁,

FB₂ or HFB₁ were clearly visible when cells stained with Wright's Giemsa stain were examined by light microscopy (Figure 5A, B and C, respectively), compared to control cells. Exposure to moniliformin or TCA did not appear to induce apoptosis under the conditions used.

Discussion

This is the first study to report the occurrence of zeosis (rapid blebbing) after separate exposure to fumonisins and beauvericin. Eukaryotic cells die either by necrosis, in which DNA remains intact, or by apoptosis [16], in which DNA is cleaved into nucleosome-length fragments; the formation of DNA fragments of oligonucleosomal lengths (180–200 bp) is a biochemical characteristic of apoptosis in many types of cells [17]. In the later stages of apoptosis, internucleosomal cleavage of DNA generates both monomers and multimers of DNA. Apoptotic lymphocytes also lose membrane phospholipid asymmetry, leading to the exposure of phosphatidylserine on the outer leaflet of the plasma membrane, triggering specific recognition and phagocytosis by macrophages [18].

The lymphocytes used in these studies were obtained from turkeys at a local commercial farm where 5,000 birds live in a large enclosed area. No mitogens were used in the *in vitro* tests. High levels of mitogenic or antigenic material (perhaps superantigens) may have been present in the turkey blood. Superantigens have the ability to interact with a large proportion of the T cell repertoire. Instead of the 1 in 10⁴ to 1 in 10⁶ T cells reacting in an MHC-restricted fashion, up to 30% of T cells can interact with a superantigen [19]. This may explain the high degree of lymphocyte proliferation observed with the control cells, even though mitogens were not added exogenously [13].

Turkey peripheral blood lymphocytes were prevented from proliferating by *in vitro* exposure to FB₁, HFB₁ or FB₂ (Figure 1). The degree of inhibition observed with HFB₁ and FB₁, with FB₁ being a more potent inhibitor, was similar to the five- to ten-fold difference reported for hepatocytes and a human colonic cell line exposed to HFB₁ and FB₁ when assayed for their ability to inhibit ceramide synthase [20, 21].

Lymphocytes exposed to FB₁ or beauvericin (Figure 2A and B) or FB₁ and beauvericin (Figure 2B) all exhibited DNA fragmentation and nuclear condensation characteristic of apoptosis. Certain instances of toxin exposure may share the morphology and bio-

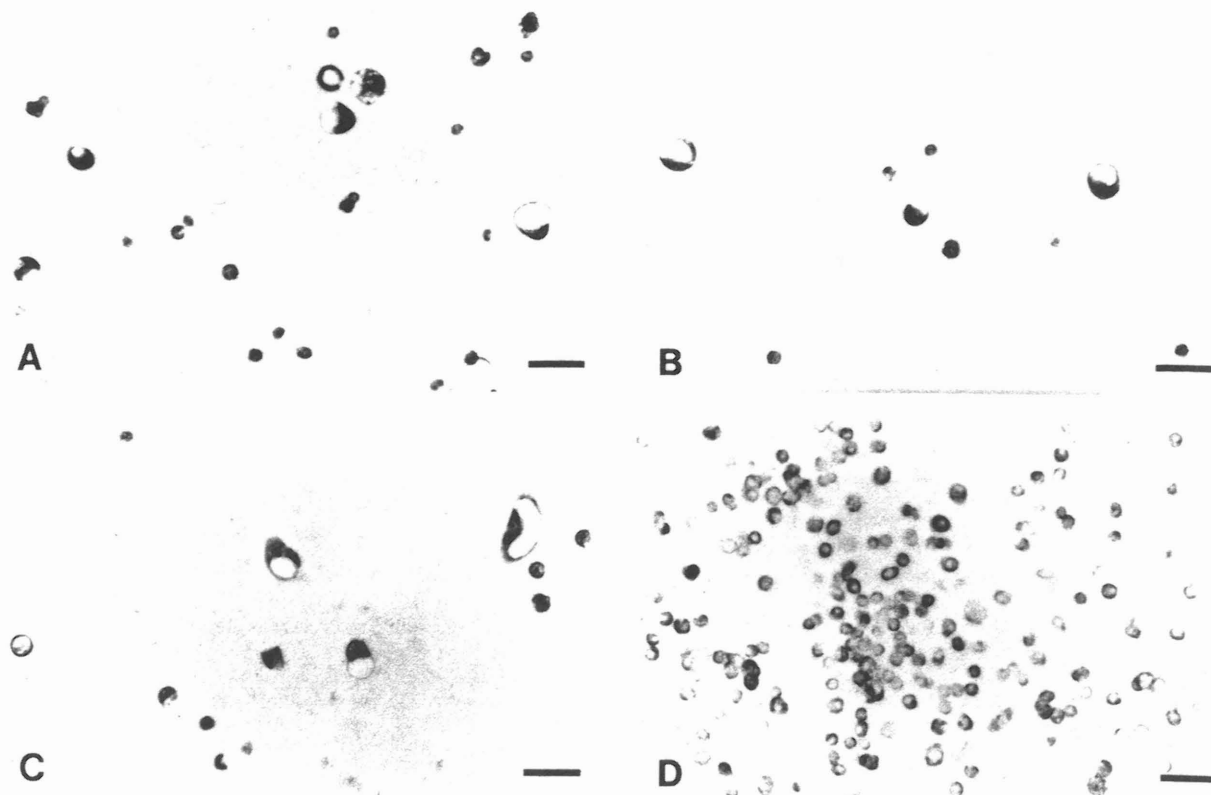


Figure 3. Turkey lymphocytes following incubation in the presence of toxins for 72 hr at 39 °C. Unstained cells were photographed using an inverted microscope. A: 50 μ M FB₁; B: 50 μ M FB₂; C: 50 μ M HFB₁; D: Control. Fewer cells were present in FB₂-exposed cultures (B) than in FB₁- and HFB₁-exposed cultures (A and C, respectively). The calibration bars are 25 μ m.

chemical changes characteristic of apoptosis [14]. Apparently, only certain populations of cells were undergoing apoptosis; resting lymphocytes were observed near apoptotic cells (Figures 3, 4 and 5). Sensitivity to fumonisins appeared to be restricted to proliferating cells, which may be more susceptible to chemical toxicity because they have a more active metabolism [22]. Similar results were observed with the anti-proliferative activity of myriocin, which was specific for antigen-stimulated lymphocytes [23]. Inhibition of proliferation is not readily observed at 24 h of incubation [13]. In this study, further incubation was required to detect apoptotic cells.

Beauvericin, an ionophore structurally related to valinomycin, can trigger an increase in cytoplasmic calcium concentration and induce apoptosis in cultured cells [24]. Certain strains of *F. proliferatum* and *F. subglutinans* produce beauvericin, a cyclic hexadepsipeptide composed of alternating *N*-methyl-*L*-phenylalanine and D- α -hydroxyisovaleric acid residues. Beauvericin is also produced by *Beauveria bassiana*, a promising mycoinsecticide for

biocontrol of domestic and agricultural pests [25]. A variety of studies examining fumonisin toxicity have utilized *F. proliferatum* culture material, without realizing that high levels of beauvericin may also have been present [8].

Moniliformin, a water-soluble sodium or potassium salt of cyclobutenedione, was initially described as being produced by *F. moniliforme* [26]. Subsequent reports have indicated that *F. proliferatum*, but not *F. moniliforme*, is capable of producing moniliformin, which has been associated with acute toxicity in experimental animals. Moniliformin appears to act as a suicide enzyme inactivator, interacting with thiamine pyrophosphate to cause inhibition of pyruvate dehydrogenase [27]. Thiamine deficiencies in young chicks fed moldy feed may have been due to the presence of moniliformin [28]. It is not surprising that toxic effects due to moniliformin were not observed in the present study. Culture media can contain levels of thiamine that would be protective. For example, the thiamine concentration of normal culture

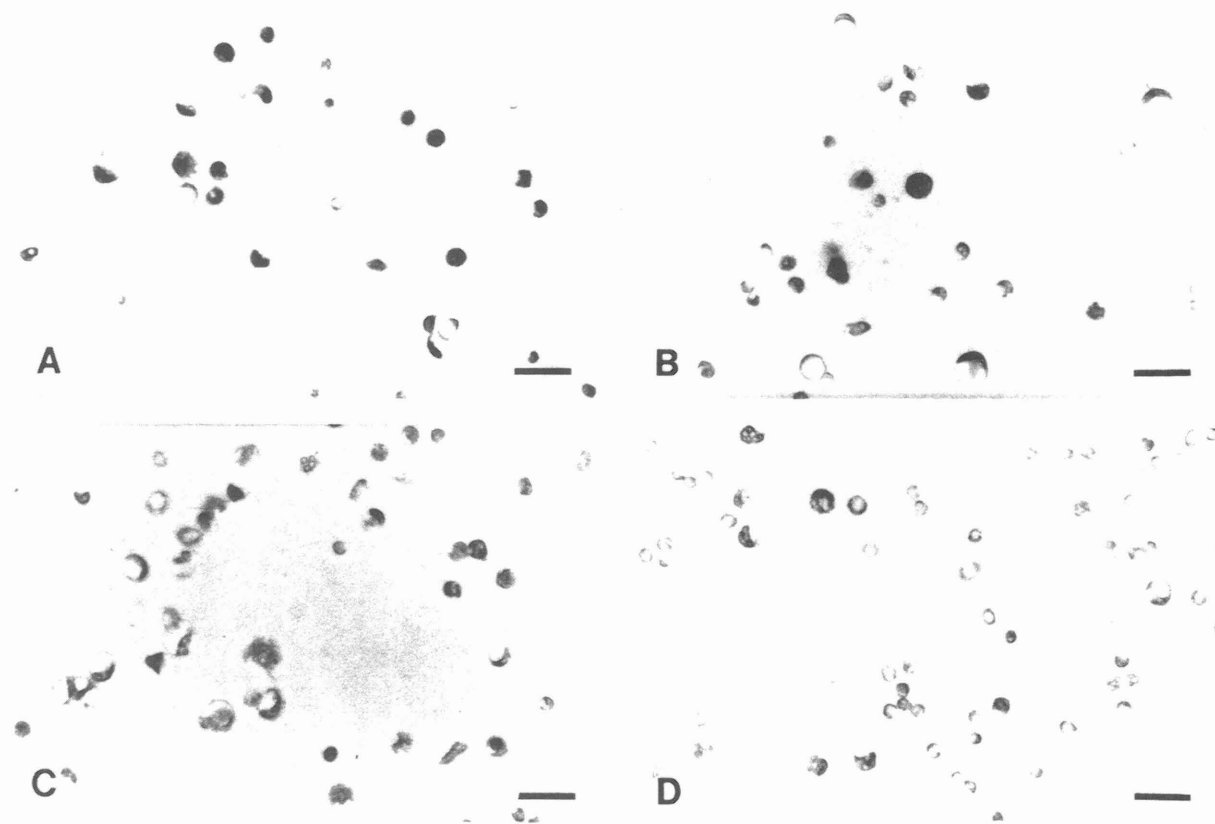


Figure 4. Turkey lymphocytes following incubation in the presence of toxins for 72 hr at 39 °C. Unstained cells were photographed using an inverted microscope. A: 8 μ M FB₁; B: 8 μ M FB₂; C: 8 μ M HFB₁; D: 50 μ M beauvericin. The calibration bars are 25 μ m.

medium is 10 μ M, but physiological levels of thiamine (<1 μ M) are much lower [29].

The appearance of the lymphocytes after *in vitro* exposure to FB₁, FB₂, HFB₁ and beauvericin indicated that the cells were undergoing apoptosis. In the presence of these toxins, cells exhibited vacuolization (Figures 3, 4 and 5). The most consistent hematological change noted in rats receiving an intraperitoneal injection of FB₁ was an increase in vacuolated bone marrow cells [30]. Nitric oxide may play a role in the observed apoptosis of lymphocytes. Recent research involving exposure of rat splenic cells to FB₁ indicates that nitric oxide produced by macrophages may be responsible for the apoptotic death of lymphocytes [31]. A small number of macrophages were present in the lymphocyte populations in this study. Results indicate that fumonisins and beauvericin may be able to cause immunosuppression in animals by abrogating proliferation and inducing apoptosis.

In conclusion, the major points made in this study were that FB₁, FB₂, HFB₁, and beauvericin were capable of suppressing proliferation of lymphocytes and

inducing apoptosis. When FB₁ and beauvericin were present together at 8 μ M, a slight additive effect was observed. Moniliformin and TCA did not induce apoptosis under the conditions used in the study. It is hypothesized that apoptosis may be triggered by the production of nitric oxide, as has been described with rat splenic cells exposed to FB₁ [31].

Acknowledgment

I wish to acknowledge the generous gift of purified fumonisins from Ronald D. Plattner. *Fusarium proliferatum* M-5991 was obtained from the Fusarium Research Center, The Pennsylvania State University.

Names are necessary to report factually on available data; however, the USDA neither guarantees nor warrants the standard of the products, and the use of the name by USDA implies no approval of the product to the exclusion of others that may also be suitable.

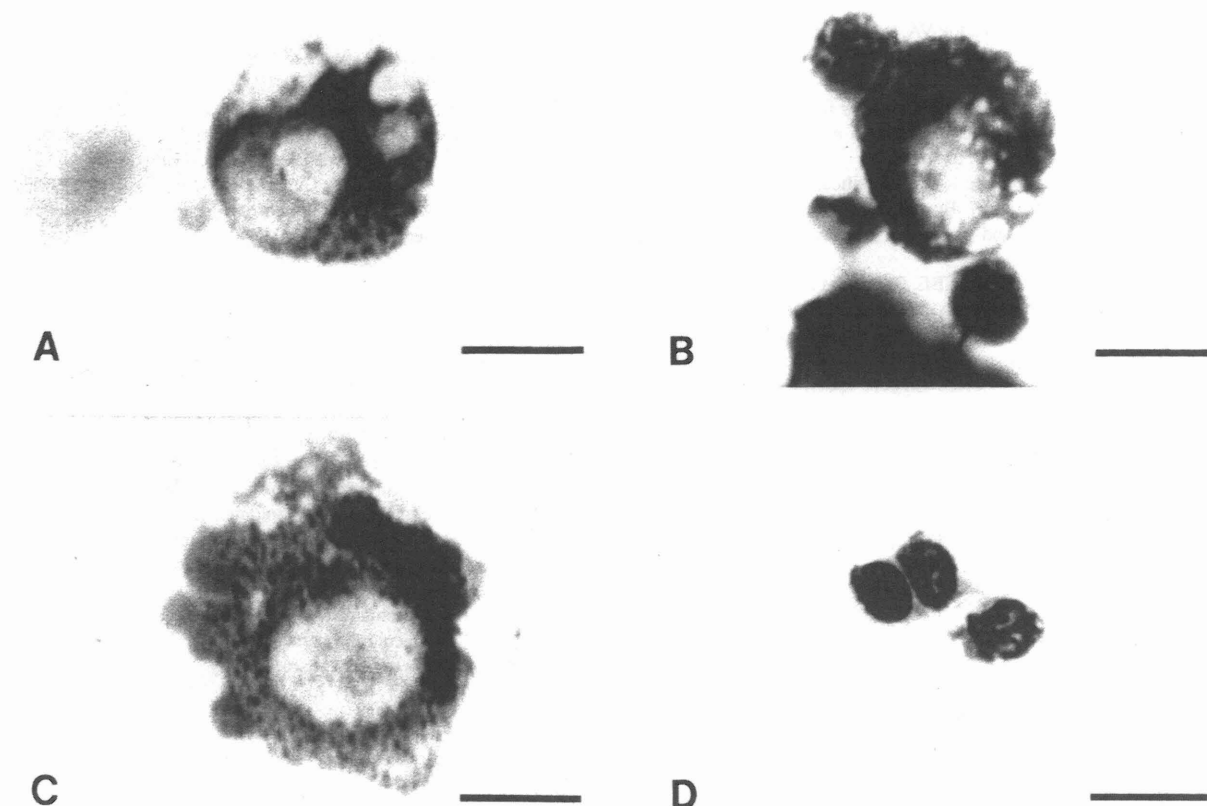


Figure 5. Turkey lymphocytes following incubation in the presence of toxins for 72 hr at 39 °C. Cells were stained with Wright's Giemsa stain and photographed. A: 8 μ M FB₁; B: 8 μ M FB₂; C: 8 μ M HFB₁; D: Control. Prominent vacuoles were observed in fumonisin-treated cells (A–C). Quiescent cells were observed near an apoptotic cell (B). The calibration bars are 10 μ m.

References

1. Plattner RD, Norred WP, Bacon CW, Voss KA, Peterson R, Shackelford DD, Weisleder D. A method of detection of fumonisins in corn samples associated with field cases of equine leukoencephalomalacia. *Mycologia* 1990; 82: 698–702.
2. Ross PF, Rice LG, Plattner RD, Osweiler GD, Wilson TM, Owens DL, Nelson HA, Richard JL. Concentrations of fumonisin B₁ in feeds associated with animal health problems. *Mycopathologia* 1991; 114: 129–135.
3. Bezuidenhout SC, Gelderblom WCA, Gorst-Allman CP, Horak RM, Marasas WFO, Spiteller G, Vleggaar R. Structure elucidation of fumonisins, mycotoxins from *Fusarium moniliforme*. *J Chem Soc Chem Commun* 1988; 743–745.
4. Wang E, Norred WP, Bacon CW, Riley RT, Merrill AH Jr. Inhibition of sphingolipid biosynthesis by fumonisins. *J Biol Chem* 1991; 266: 14486–14490.
5. Wang E, Ross PF, Wilson TM, Riley RT, Merrill AH Jr. Increases in serum sphingosine and sphinganine and decreases in complex sphingolipids in ponies given feed containing fumonisins, mycotoxins produced by *Fusarium moniliforme*. *J Nutr* 1992; 122: 1706–1716.
6. Powell RG, Plattner RD. Fumonisins. In: Pelletier SW (ed.), *Alkaloids: Chemical and Biological Perspectives*. New York: Pergamon Press, 1995; 9: 247–278.
7. Marasas WFO, Thiel PG, Rabie CJ. Moniliformin production in *Fusarium* section *Liseola*. *Mycologia* 1986; 78: 242–247.
8. Plattner RD, Nelson PE. Production of beauvericin by a strain of *Fusarium proliferatum* isolated from corn fodder for swine. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 1994; 60: 3894–3896.
9. Dombrink-Kurtzman MA, Dvorak TJ, Barron ME, Rooney LW. Effect of nixtamalization (alkaline cooking) on fumonisin-contaminated corn for production of masa and tortillas. *J Agric Food Chem* 2000; 48: 5781–5786.
10. Wang H, Jones C, Ciacci-Zanella J, Holt T, Gilchrist DG, Dickman MB. Fumonisins and *Alternaria alternata lycopersici* toxins: Sphinganine analog mycotoxins induce apoptosis in monkey kidney cells. *Proc Natl Acad Sci USA* 1996; 93: 3461–3465.
11. Tolleson WH, Melchior WB Jr, Morris SM, McGarrity LJ, Domm OE, Muskhelishvili L, James SJ, Howard PC. Apoptotic and anti-proliferative effects of fumonisin B₁ in human keratinocytes, fibroblasts, esophageal epithelial cells and hepatoma cells. *Carcinogenesis* 1996; 17: 239–249.
12. Kim MS, Lee DY, Wang T, Schroeder JJ. Fumonisin B₁ induces apoptosis in LLC-PK₁ renal epithelial cells via a sphinganine- and calmodulin-dependent pathway. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol* 2001; 176: 118–126.
13. Dombrink-Kurtzman MA, Bennett GA, Richard JL. An optimized MTT bioassay for determination of cytotoxicity of fumonisins in turkey lymphocytes. *J Assoc Off Anal Chem Int* 1994; 77: 512–517.

14. Cohen JJ, Duke RC, Fadok VA, Sellins KS. Apoptosis and programmed cell death in immunity. *Annu Rev Immunol* 1992; 10: 267–293.
15. Mosmann T. Rapid colorimetric assay for cellular growth and survival: Application to proliferation and cytotoxicity assays. *J Immunol Meth* 1983; 65: 55–63.
16. Wyllie AH. Cell death: a new classification separating apoptosis from necrosis. In: Bowen ID, Lockshin RA (eds.), *Cell death in biology and pathology*. London: Chapman & Hall, 1981: 9–34.
17. Bortner CD, Oldenburg NBE, Cidlowski JA. The role of DNA fragmentation in apoptosis. *Trends Cell Biol* 1995; 5: 21–26.
18. Fadok VA, Voelker DR, Campbell PA, Cohen JJ, Bratton DL, Henson PM. Exposure of phosphatidylserine on the surface of apoptotic lymphocytes triggers specific recognition and removal by macrophages. *J Immunol* 1992; 148: 2207–2216.
19. Acha-Orbea H, MacDonald HR. Superantigens of mouse mammary tumor virus. *Annu Rev Immunol* 1995; 13: 459–486.
20. Merrill AH Jr, Wang E, Gilchrist DG, Riley RT. Fumonisin and other inhibitors of *de novo* sphingolipid biosynthesis. *Adv Lipid Res* 1993; 26: 215–234.
21. Schmelz EM, Dombrink-Kurtzman MA, Roberts PC, Kozutsumi Y, Kawasaki T, Merrill AH Jr. Induction of apoptosis by fumonisin B₁ in HT29 cells is mediated by the accumulation of endogenous free sphingoid bases. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol* 1998; 148: 252–260.
22. Zanesi N, Ferraro P, Pavanello S, Furlan D, Celotti L. Cytotoxic and mutagenic effects of anti- and syn-benzo[*a*]pyrene diol epoxide in human lymphocytes. *Toxic in Vitro* 1994; 8: 1269–1275.
23. Fujita T, Inoue K, Yamamoto S, Ikumoto T, Sasaki S, Toyama R, Chiba K, Hoshino Y, Okumoto T. Fungal metabolites. Part 11. A potent immunosuppressive activity found in *Isaria sinclairii* metabolite. *J Antibiotics* 1994; 47: 208–215.
24. Ojcius DM, Zychlinsky A, Zheng LM, Young JD-E. Ionophore-induced apoptosis: Role of DNA fragmentation and calcium fluxes. *Exp Cell Res* 1991; 197: 43–49.
25. Genthner FJ, Cripe GM, Crosby DJ. Effect of *Beauveria bassiana* and its toxins on *Mysidopsis bahia* (Mysidacea). *Arch Environ Contam Toxicol* 1994; 26: 90–94.
26. Cole RJ, Kirksey JW, Cutler HG, Doupnik BL, Peckham JC. Toxin from *Fusarium moniliforme*: Effects on plants and animals. *Science* 1973; 179: 1324–1326.
27. Gathercole PS, Thiel PG, Hofmeyr JHS. Inhibition of pyruvate dehydrogenase complex by moniliformin. *Biochem J* 1986; 233: 719–723.
28. Fritz JC, Mislivec PB, Pla GW, Harrison BN, Weeks CE, Dantzman JG. Toxicogenicity of moldy feed for young chicks. *Poul Sci* 1973; 52: 1523–1530.
29. Bettendorff L, Wins P. Mechanism of thiamine transport in neuroblastoma cells. *J Biol Chem* 1994; 269: 14379–14385.
30. Bondy GS, Barker MG, Lombaert GA, Armstrong CL, Fernie SM, Gurofsky S, Huzel V, Savard ME, Curran IHA. A comparison of clinical, histopathological and cell-cycle markers in rats receiving the fungal toxins fumonisin B₁ or fumonisin B₂ by intraperitoneal injection. *Food Chem Toxicol* 2000; 38: 873–886.
31. Dombrink-Kurtzman MA, Gomez-Flores R, Weber RJ. Activation of rat splenic macrophage and lymphocyte functions by fumonisin B₁. *Immunopharmacology* 2000; 49: 401–409.

Address for correspondence: Dr. Mary Ann Dombrink-Kurtzman, Mycotoxin Research Unit, National Center for Agricultural Utilization Research, USDA, Agricultural Research Service, 1815 North University Street, Peoria, Illinois 61604 USA
 Phone: 309-681-6254; Fax: 309-681-6686;
 e-mail: dombrink@ncaur.usda.gov